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The purposes of this 11th-grade unit on language are to survey the most important grammatical elements of the English sentence and to synthesize grammatical principles previously learned in grades 7-10 of the curriculum. The unit moves from discussions of the simplest grammatical elements to the more complex: Bound and free morphemes are defined, and ways in which they are combined in word formation are determined. The roles of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in phrases and sentences are inductively presented. Basic sentence patterns are then expanded by transformations into other types of sentences--questions, negations, complex sentences, sentences with indirect objects, sentences with predicate objects, and sentences in the passive voice. Finally, the more complex basic syntactic patterns of predication, complementation, modification, and coordination are analyzed. The materials include procedural notes, sample lecture-discussions, and worksheets. (See TE 001 265, TE 001 268, and TE 001 272 for previous grammar units.) (JB)

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Unit 1104

An Outline of Grammatical Elements

Grade Eleven

TE 001 334

CAUTIONARY NOTE

These materials are for experimental use by Project English fellows and their associates who contributed to their development.

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TO THE TEACHER

This unit is intended as a survey of the most important grammatical elements in English, moving from the smallest and simplest to the longer and more complex. The unit attempts a synthesis of grammatical principles students have learned in the previous grammar units in the MPEC curriculum. Because of inevitable variations in student backgrounds, you may find it necessary to use earlier grammar units for resources of review. Those units to which you might wish to refer are:

704 Introduction to Transformational Grammar
705 Syntactic Relationships
803 Structures of Time, Mode, Manner, and Causality
804 Structures of Specification, Place, and Number
903 Approaches to Grammar
904 Introduction to Paragraph Revision: Structures of Emphasis in the Paragraph
1005 Grammatical Formations

Following this uni in their senior year, the students will be assigned a practical applicacion of grammatical principles and language study techniques in Unit 1201, Linguistic Description.

Sample Lecture-Discussions and other procedural guides have been provided in the left margin of the unit booklet. These are intended only as suggestions; it is assumed that you will adapt these to your own classroom situation. When changes are made, however, the same conceptual content should be maintained with only the teaching approach being changed. Student responses to discussion questions are suggested when possible, and these should also be seen only as suggestions. You obviously will not get identical answers from students, and, in many cases, additional questions and comments from the teacher will be necessary before a satisfactory response is given.

OUTLINE OF CONTENT

I. Introduction: Rules, principles, or criteria for arranging meaningful elements in words, phrases, and sentences.

II. Definition and Survey of meaningful elements in English

  A. Semantic (lexical) and structural (functional) elements

  B. Bound and free morphemes

III. Identification of four parts of speech

  A. Nouns

  B. Verbs

  C. Adjectives

  D. Adverbs

IV. Five basic sentence patterns

  A. N V (Av)

  B. N^1 V N^2 (Av)

  C. N^1 V N^1

  D. N V A (Av)

  E. N V Av (Av)

V. Expanding the basic sentence patterns by transformations

  A. Question sentences

  B. Negation sentences

  C. Complex sentences

  D. Sentences with indirect objects

  E. Sentences with predicate objects

  F. Sentences with passive voice.

VI. Four syntactic structures

  A. Predication

  B. Complementation

  C. Modification

  D. Coordination

VII. Summary Lecture and final exam for this unit.

Introductory Lecture-Discussion: Words and Morphemes

Introductory Discussion

NOTE: If students are already familiar with the term morpheme, this discussion will need to be only a short review.

1. As you have learned in previous units, speech communication is primarily the transmission and reception of units of sounds. What do most people think of as being the smallest units we use in our speech?

   (Words)

2. Some of you might already be familiar with the terms used in linguistic study, but if we asked the man on the street to define word, what do you think he would say?

   (Student responses will vary here, but allow as much discussion time as they need. Ask the class to evaluate the various suggested definitions in terms of their own knowledge of language study. This might give you a fairly good idea of the level of competence for at least some of the students.)

Following this discussion, allow students to discuss the list of definitions at right.

a. An articulate sound or series of sounds which symbolizes and communicates an idea.

b. A sound or combination of sounds, or its printed representation, used in any language as the sign of a conception.

c. An element which can stand alone as an utterance, not divisible into two or more parts similarly characterized.

d. A linguistic form consisting of a base and a superfix, with or without one or more affixes.

3. Looking over this list, which of these would you call single words? Which would you think of as more than a single word?

Write these on the board.

a. camp (1)
b. camper (1)
c. campfire (2)
d. campfire girl (3)
e. camp follower (2)
f. campground (2)
g. camp chair (2)
h. campcraft (2)

Sample Discussion, con't.

4. What is the difference between camp and camper?

   a. If camper means "one who camps", how is the "one who" designated?

   b. If -er designates "one who," why is it not a word? It is meaningful, but not a word. Why not?

5. If we distinguish between meaningful elements such as camp- and -er, how might we characterize them?

   a. camp- can stand along; -er cannot.

   b. camp- is a free form; -er is a bound form.

6. Pick out the free and bound forms in the eight combinations on the board.

free forms	bound forms
camp (8 times)	-er (camper, follower)
fire (2 times)	
ground	
craft	
follow	

Distribute Worksheet #1

It is recommended that this be done in class under the supervision of the teacher.

Unit 1104
Worksheet # 1

4A

Directions: From the word list below, examine each word or group of words and separate the meaningful elements, either bound or free forms. Use a good desk dictionary to help you with the meaning of any new words.

WORD LIST

morph
word blindness
biology
wordage
morpheme
morphology
morphogenesis
morpheus
biological
biogenesis
mileage
phone
phoneme

Part One: Isolate all simple words (single elements).

Part Two: Isolate all other elements.

Part Three: Compare the words and groups of words and look for forms with similar meanings.

Part Four: Assign a definition or meaning to each of the elements.

morph (morph-, morphe-)

word

blind

bio

-ology

-eme

genesis

-age

mile

phone

Morpheus

-ness

-less

-ly

-ical

Suggested Activities

Write these words on the board

Nesselrode
roughage
microbiology
baroness
kindness
thoughtfulness
cabbage
sage
etymology

Discussion Questions

1. How many of these words agree with the meaning of the elements established in the worksheet?

2. How many of these words can be pluralized?

Write these words on board

morpheme
morphine
Morpheus
morphology

Discussion Questions

1. How many separate meanings are necessary for morph?

2. What connection exists between Morpheus and morphine?

3. Look up the etymology of Morpheus in the dictionary and then explain the connection between Morpheus and morph.

4. Notice that English word formations are not necessarily bound by the rule of Greek word formation. (This is illustrated by the words in #2 and #3.)

Sample Lecture-Discussion: Analysis of words.

1. How many kinds of words were established in the last worksheet?

(a. simple words: word, phone, blind

b. complex words: wordage, morpheme

c. compound words: campfire

d. compound-complex words: word blindness)

NOTE: You might wish to change these to inductive questions allowing students to discover types of analysis.

2. Analysis of simple words: simple words include single free elements:

a. by syllables

one-syllable words such as word, phone, blind

two syllable words such as cabbage, follow

three syllable words such as Atlantic, gigolo, carousel

four syllable words such as Minnesota, asparagus

NOTE: These are distinct from complex words in that the inflections do not change the form class of the word.

b. by structural elements

making plurals: word, words

marking past: phone, phoned

marking participial verb: blind, blinding

(The snow was blinding the man.)

Test these descriptions of simple words by supporting each example with several others.

3. Analysis of complex words

a. bound stem with derivational suffix, dental

b. prefix with bound stem prefix

c. free stem with derivational suffix blindness

d. prefix with free stem reword

4. Analysis of compound words

a. two elements (both simple) campfire

b. three elements (all simple) hereinafter

c. two elements (one complex) camp follower

d. two elements (both complex) cigarette smoker

e. two elements (one or both compound) campground keeper

5. Analysis of compound-complex words

a. compound word with derivational suffix forthrightness

b. prefix and compound word ex-servicemen

Supplementary Activity: Prepare a list of 40 to 50 words for students to identify according to type.

2. The Word in the System of Communication

Place this sentence on the board. Read the sentence aloud. Have the students transcribe it phonemically.

The fastest dogs have jumped quickly.

faetist dogz haev jəmpt kwikliy

AT THIS POINT IN THE GRADE 11 GRAMMAR IT MAY BE NECESSARY TO INTRODUCE OR REVIEW PHONOLOGY. THE MATERIAL FOR GRADE 10 IS ADEQUATE: SEE UNIT 1005, GRAMMATICAL FORMATIONS.

Discuss the elements of the sentence.

a. The /ðə/ - free form

b. fast- / fæst/ -free form

c. -est -/ əst/ (the vowel here may be /ə, i, ɨ) - bound form

d. dog- /dog/ -free form

e. -s /z/ - bound form

f. have / hæv/ - free form

g. jump- /jəmp/ - free form

h. -ed /t/ - bound form

j. quick- /kwik/ -free form

k. -ly /liy/ (the dipthong here may be /iy/ or monophthongs /ɨ, i/) - bound form

Discuss the reasons for using sound symbols.

1. Is the -s of dogs pronounced /z/ in all other element combinations of English

cats horses

No, we also hear /s/.)

The point to be made is simply that the written word is an inaccurate representation of the spoken word. If we use a system of transcription that is more accurate, we can better understand and explain the ambiguities that appear in the conventional system of writing.

2. Is the -ed of jumped pronounced /t/ in all other element combinations of English?

crawled headed (They headed for the fence.)

(No, we also hear /d/.)

Sample Lecture-Discussion: Lexical and Structural Forms

1. Another way of distinguishing elements is as either lexical or structural (functional, grammatical) forms. Beginning with the same sentence we used before, The fastest dogs have jumped quickly, the lexical and structural elements would be listed this way:

lexical	structural
fast- /fæst/	The /ðə/
dog - /dog/	-est /ɪst/
jump - /jəmp/	-s /z/
quick - /kwik/	-ed /t/
	-ly /liy/

Which of the lists of words would be easier to define? (lexical) Why?

What kinds of definitions would you have to use for the structural elements? (In terms of the framework structural elements establish for the lexical elements.)

2. A good way to see the framework established by structural elements is to remove the lexical elements from a sentence and observe what remains. Take this sentence for example:

The older boys played in the streets.

What would remain is we removed all of the lexical elements from this sentence?

The ----------er -------s ----- --ed in the ----- ---s

or

/ðə oldər boyz pleyed in ðə striyts

------ r ------z -- ------d in ---------s/

To eradicate all possibilities of lexical meaning entering the discussion of structural elements, this lesson might be used.

3. We can eliminate lexical elements completely by creating a sentence in which we use nonsense syllables in place of the lexical elements. Let's assume that none of us knows a lexical meaning for the word gorph. We can still create a sentence such as this:

"The gorphiest of the gorphing gorphs had gorphed that gorph's gorph."

The -----iest of the ----ing -----s had -------ed that -------'s --------.

Part One

Looking in desk dictionaries for the definitions of the elements in this list, try to determine whether they are defined in terms of vocabulary or in terms of structure. Circle those defined by structure.

in- pre- -tion -ing fore- a- -ous of -er -est

-ish -like

Part Two

The comparative regularity of word order in English makes it possible for us to make some predictions about where words will fit in a sentence. Taking the following sentence as a model, decide where the words on the list would be most likely to occur.

The fastest dogs have jumped quickly.
1 2 3 4

The _____ _____ have _____ _____.
1 2 3 4

On the back of this sheet, list the appropriate words under the number of the position in the sentence.

WORD LIST

lost
downstairs
stood
gansters
hopeful
fallen
aloud
marvelous
oldsters
arguments
hopefully
quit
consistencies
seen
lain
here
employees
physical
relaxed
under
danced
hostilities
gained

somehow
conveniences
bad
uncommon
bitten
student-wise
eagerly
librarians
excited
carpenters
weak
alive
walked
cost
comic
foolish
fought
impulsive
read
sailors
green
popular
lawyers

legendary
hung
written
remarkable
woolen
bitten
flown
friendly
exciting
held
laid
spoken
ragged
hopeless
eaten
good
slain
silly
self-indulgent
struck
prevailed
found
hanged
won

Sample Lecture-Discussion:
The System of English Sentences

Because it is impossible to discuss the system of the sentence without terminology to identify its elements, we now establish the terms noun, verb, adjective, and adverb on the basis of formal feature-- the morphological and distributional characteristics. These features have been introduced in preceding material and developed more specifically in that which follows.

Spend whatever time you think is necessary to show how description by formal features differs from conventional parts-of-speech terminology and how formal description attempts to overcome the inadequacies of traditional grammar.

In the last exercise you completed, you made some predictions about where words would occur in English sentences. The success you had in doing this illustrates how the position of a word, or its distributional characteristics, might help us classify the elements of an English sentence. From the same exercise, however, you should understand that the distributional characteristics alone do not give us an entirely satisfactory way of classifying sentence elements, since you were able to use some words in more than one position.

During the next part of this unit we will see how the distributional characteristics and some other kinds of characteristics we call morphological can work together to identify the sentence elements nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

1. A noun is a syntactic element with the following characteristics:

a. Morphological: distinguishes between singular and plural by means of an inflectional suffix (dog/dogs) or an internal change (goose/geese); the several exceptions to this rule e.g. sheep/sheep; deer/deer, can be cited but require no development here. The morphological noun is also distinguished by the inflectional suffix of possession (dog/ dog's) which is usually phonemically identical with the plural, i. e. /dogz/dogz/ for dogs, dog's.

NOTE:
It is important to stress the priority of inflection over distribution. For example, nouns morphologically inflected as possessives will usually fill the position of the

adjective, i.e., position #1 of the preceding exercise

b. Distributional: nouns fill the positions:

The _____ is tall
A _____ is tall
in_____
in a _____
in the _____

c. Substitution sub-class (pronouns): characterized by singular-plural inflection (I/we, etc.) possessive-non-possessive inflection (my/I), subject-object inflection (I, me, etc.), and distinguished from other nouns in that they are not preceded by markers the, a.

2. A verb is a syntactic element with the following characteristics:

a. Morphological: distinguishes between singular and plural (jumps, jump), present and past (jump jumped, or internally, write, wrote.)

b. Distributional: verbs fill the positions:

The dogs _____s in the yard.

The dog _____ there.

The dog _____ sensible.

The dog _____ the man.

The dog (modal verb) _____-ed someone.

3. An adjective is a syntactic element with the following characteristics:

a. Morphological: distinguishes between positive, comparative, superlative (fast, faster, fastest)

b. Distributional: fills the positions:

The _____ dogs jumped.

The dog is _____.

4. An adverb is a syntactic element with the following characteristics:

a. Morphological: frequently distinguished by the -ly derivational suffix (quickly)

b. Distributional: fills the positions:

The dogs barked _____.

5. All other syntactic elements are tentatively described as structure (function) words:

a. the, a, ever, no (noun markers)

b. may, can, must, should (verb markers)

c. not (negator)

d. very, more, pretty, rather, (qualifiers)

e. and, or, not, but, rather (connectors)

f. for, by, in, from, of (prepositions)

g. when, why, where, how (interrogators)

h. because, after, when, although (subordinators)

i. well, oh, now, why (responders)

Sample Lecture-Discussion Continued

WORD ORDER IN ENGLISH SYNTAX

Teachers may wish to supplement this introduction with material available in any good history of the English language book or with a comparison of Old English or Latin syntax and Modern English syntax (i.e., a comparison of an analytical and a synthetic language.)

A famous definition of what constitutes news is this one: When a dog bites a man, it's not news; when a man bites a dog, it is news. Leaving behind what this definition might tell us about newspapers, let's look at what the headlines used for these respective stories can tell about English sentences. Whether we read

DOG BITES MAN
or
MAN BITES DOG

makes a great deal of difference.

1. What signals this difference?

   (The order in which the words occur.)

2. Provide additional examples of sentences in which a change in meaning is signalled by a simple change in word order.

Not all language rely on word order to the same extent as English does. The same simple example we used earlier--Dog Bites Man or Man Bites Dog--would appear this way in Latin equivalents:

a. Canis mordet hominem.
   Hominem mordet canis.
   Mordet canis hominem.

   (Each equivalent to Dog Bites Man.)

b. Homo mordet canem.
   Canem mordet homo.
   Mordet homo canem.

   (Each equivalent to Man Bites Dog.)

3. Which word stands for dog in group A?

   (Canis.)

4. Which word stands for man in group A?

   (Hominem.)

5. What structural element signals receiver of the action in group A?

   (-em, ir as some students will legitimately insist, -inem)

6. Is the same or a similar structural signal used to identify receiver of the action in group B?

   (Yes, -em.)

7. Now suppose that we use that -em signal in the English phrases with which we started. How would we write Dog Bites Man?

(Dog bites manem.)

8. How would we write Man Bites Dog?

(Man bites dogem.)

9. What would we now be able to do with the word order, something we were not able to do before without changing the meaning of the phrases?

(Re-arrange the word order and still retain the original meaning--Manem bites dog could be taken to mean Dog bites man, despite the change in word order.)

We have already seen that not all languages depend upon word order to the same extent that English does. In addition, we might note that English has not always relied on word order as much as it does today. We can look at a very small part of English grammar and get some idea of the degree to which English has dropped inflections and come to depend more on word order.

Look at the outline of the third person pronoun forms in Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. The nominative forms correspond to what we would use as the subjects of sentences, genitive corresponds to our possessive, dative to our indirect objects, and accusative to our direct objects.

THIRD PERSON

Masculine	O.E.	M.E.	Mdn.E.	Neuter	O.E.	M.E.	Mdn.E.
Nom.	he	he	he	Nom.	hit	hit, it	it
Gen.	his	his	his	Gen.	his	his	its
Dat.	him	him	him	Dat.	him	(him)	it
Acc.	hine	___	him	Acc.	his	hit, it	it

Feminine	O.E.	M.E.	Mdn. E.
Nom.	heo, hie	he, ho, hie, she	she
Gen.	hire	hire, here	her
Dat.	hire	hire	her
Acc.	heo, hie	he, ho, hie	her

Plural	O.E.	M.E.	Mdn. E.
Nom.	hie		they
Gen.	hiera, heora	here, hire	their
Dat.	him, heom	hem	them
Acc.	hie	___	them

Sample Discussion Questions

1. What are the forms of the third person pronoun in Modern English?

   (he, his, him, it, its, she, her, they, their, them)

2. How would you describe the development of these pronouns from Old English to Modern English?

   (Toward fewer inflected forms)

Emphasize that these cases are not distinguished in the forms of the words.

3. Does Modern English distinguish between the dative and accusative cases, according to this example?

   (Not in the forms of the words.)

Another way of stating this point is to say that the dative and accusative forms of pronouns have fallen together into the single objective form. This applies only to pronouns, since there are no objectives forms for other nouns.

4. Most textbooks no longer refer to the dative and accusative forms, but do refer to the objective form of pronouns. Why do you think textbooks do this?

   (It is a better discription of the pronouns. The distinction between dative and accusative is no longer made. A single form serves for both direct and indirect object.)

5. In one of the following sentences him is used as a direct object; in the other sentence him is used as an indirect object. How is the difference signalled in Modern English?

   I gave him the book.
   I gave the book to him.

   (The difference is signalled by word order.)

BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

On the basis of the criteria given for the parts of speech, identify the elements in the following sentence:

Write on board

"The hairy mole crawled into a hollow log."

Have students identify elements

N for noun

V for verb

A for adjective

Av for adverb

SW for structure word

thus:

SW A N V SW SW A N

Explain these identifications as follows:

1. The is marked SW because it is a noun marker. (5a)

2. hairy is marked A because it, first is subject to adjective inflection (hairy, hairier, hairiest), and second, it fills the adjective position (3a and 3b)

3. mole is marked N because it, first, is subject to noun inflections (mole, moles) and (mole's mole), and, second, because it fills the noun position (1a, 1b); futhermore it is subject to substitution by pronouns: It crawled into it. (1c)

4. crawled is marked V because it demonstrates the verb inflection -ed/d/ and is subject to verb inflection of singular and plural (crawls, crawl) and is subject to verb markers and fills verb position (2a-b).

5. into is marked SW because it is a preposition (5f)

6. a is marked SW because it is a noun marker (5a)

7. hollow is marked A because it is subject to adjective inflection (hollow, hollower, hollowest) and because it fills the adjective position (3a-b).

8. log is marked N because it is subject to noun inflections (logs, log and log's, log) and because it fills the noun position (1a-b); furthermore it is subject to substitution by pronoun (it) (1c).

After writing these nine sentences on the board, have students identify the elements of the sentences.

SENTENCES

1. The fire burns.
2. The fire burns brightly.
3. The fire burns the paper.
4. The fireman became a hero.
5. He is the fire chief.
6. He became a politician overnight.
7. His conduct seems dishonest.
8. Dishonest servants are dangerous.
9. The mayor is here.

EXPECTED ANSWERS

SW N V

SE N V Av

SW N V SW N

SE N V SW N

N V SW N

N V SW N Av

N N V A

A N V A

SW N V Av

Discuss the morpholggical basis for identifying fire chief as a single noun (compound word comprising two free forms) and His (7) as a noun (inflection takes precedence over position and function, i.e., noun determiner.)

NOTE TO THE TEACHER: Discuss the syntactic (positional) basis for identifying overnight (6) and here (9) as adverbs (test after qualifiers which function as adjectives markers very, pretty, quite:

He became a politician _____ overnight.

The mayor is _____ here.

Put the formulas for the nine sentences on the board and note that structure words are not essential to the patterns, in other words, ignore them for the present:

The purpose here is to establish the five basic sentence patterns. The procedure will involve:

1. Distinguishing between the verb in 1 and the verb in 3.

2. Distinguishing between the nouns in 3.

3. Distinguishing between the nouns in 7.

1. N V
2. N V Av
3. N V N
4. N V N
5. N V N
6. N V N Av
7. N N V A
8. A N V A
9. N V Av

Discussion Questions:

1. What regular arrangements do you notice in the nine sentences?

   (You notice that a noun begins 8 of 9 sentences and that a noun always precedes the verb.)

   (You notice that after the fairly regular N V arrangement several other occurrences are possible.)

2. How many basic positions do there seem to be?

   There are three basic positions in most sentences:

   (The N position (preverb))

   (The V position (verb))

   (The N, A, or Av position (postverb))

3. How many other positions are there and why are these less important?

   (The N N sequence in #7 is a combination that could be replaced by N.)

   (The A N sequence in #8 could be replaced by N.)

4. To which of the following five basic sentences patterns does each of the nine examples sentences belong?

   Pattern One - N V (Av)

   Pattern Two - N^1 V N^2 (Av) - N^2 is an object in this pattern.

Place basic sentenac patterns on the chalkboard. Indicate optional elements with parentheses (the adverb in patterns 1, 2, 4, and 5). Tell students that those elements appearing in parentheses may or may not occur.

Pattern Three - N^1 V N^1

Pattern Four - N V A (Av)

Pattern Five - N V Av (Av)

Answers:

Pattern One - Sentences 1, 2

Pattern Two - Sentence 3

Pattern Three - Sentences 4, 5, 6

Pattern Four - Sentences 7, 8

Pattern Five - Sentence 9

TRANSFORMATIONS

This portion of the unit introduces sentences produced by transforming the five basic sentence patterns. The following types of sentences are introduced and discussed:

question sentences
negation sentences
complex sentences
sentences with indirect objects
sentences with predicate objects
sentences with passive voice

You probably agree that the basic sentence patterns are not the only ones we use in our speech and writing. Can you give examples of sentences not included in the list of five basic patterns?

(Encourage students to provide examples of the sentence forms listed to the left.)

The question we should be asking now is this:

<u>How many additional patterns are needed to describe Modern English sentences</u>?

Using the symbols of the basic sentence patterns, write the formulas for these additional sentence types.

NOTE: Special symbols will be needed to represent auxiliary and infinitive verb form:

He wants those shoes.

Does he want those shoes?

He does not want those shoes.

V^X for auxiliaries

V for infinitives

1. Question sentence:

   Is he happy? V N A

2. Negation sentence:

   He is not happy? N V SW A

3. Complex sentence:

   The boy who laughs is happy. SW N N V V A

4. Indirect object:

   He gave them a joke. N V N SW N

5. Predicate object:

   They call him laughing-boy. N V N N

6. Passive:

   He was laughed out of town. N V V Av

Compare the patterns established by the members of the class and it will be quite apparent that these six sentence types have a wide range of formulaic representation.

Introductory Questions:

A. The question transform:

1. What usually happens to a statement when it becomes a question?

a. Simple reversal of position:

   He is happy N V A

   Is he happy V N A

b. Introduction of an auxiliary verb in the question sentence.

   He sings a song N V SW N

   Does he sing a song V^X N V SW N

2. What else has happened to the verb?

   (The main verb has been changed to its infinitive form.)

3. Why has it changed?

   (Verbs only occur in their infinitive form when accompanied by auxiliaries.)

4. What do you think of the sentence:

   Sing he the song?

   Does it seem standard Modern English, antiquated English or non-English?

5. Can you write a set of rules to explain the underlying grammatical principle that accounts for the development or generation of question sentences from basic sentences?

1. Verbs such as is (be) and have operate with simple exchange of position with nouns.

   He is tall — Is he tall

   He has lice — Has he lice

2. Other verbs require a more elaborate transformation but the underlying principle is the same, i.e., a verb replaces the position occupied by the noun of the statement.

   He sings the song

   N V SW N

   Does he sing the song

   V N V SW N

The operation is clearer in those sentences already containing an auxiliary verb in the statement form.

He will sing a song.

Will he sing a song.

In this transformation only a reversal or exchange of position is necessary to convert the statement into a question because the infinitive form sing is already present as is the auxiliary.

Thus the transformation rule must include all possibilities:

1. Reverse positions of be or have and subject noun.

Reverse positions of first auxiliary and subject noun or participial

2. Elsewhere add auxiliary (which automatically necessitates the infinitive form of the former lone verb) and then reverse position of N and V verb.

Test this rule on:

He would have liked to go.
He has some bananas.
He can sing like an owl.
He is trying to sing like a sparrow.

B. The negation transform:

Transform the same sentences of 1 in this sequence, following the same procedure <u>except</u>

a. Omit the reversal

b. Add a negator after the first auxiliary (the one already present or the one added.)

(He sings a song.

He does sing a song.

He does not sing a song.

or

He has some bananas.

He has not any bananas.)

In sentences such as this, replacement is also necessary in the affected structure words.

Note also that the auxiliary verbs are best classified as SW because they function as question or negation markers.

Prepare a long list of sentences to be transformed into negations. Note all apparent inconsistencies and add them to the transformation rules.

C. Complex sentences are simply the transformation of two basic sentence types linked by a SW (a subordinator).

He sings He feels like it

He sings when he feels like it.

Develop this as fully as you wish with exercises and examples.

D. Indirect objects are possible only under these circumstances:

a. A direct object must be present

b. A prepositional phrase must occur in the basic sentence

He threw a curve to him.

He throws him a curve.

1. The preposition (SW) is lost

2. The object (N marked by lost SW) is shifted to the position immediately after the verb and before the direct object (N^2)

Sing a song for me.

Sing me a song.

E. Predicate objects are simply the transformation of two basic sentence types:

They called him.

He is laughing-boy.

They called him laughing-boy.

F. Sentence with passive:

Joe was hit by a truck

from

A truck hit Joe

1. N^1 reverses position with N^2 <u>Joe hit a truck</u>

2. Auxiliary verb (SW, passive marker) included before verb.
<u>Joe was hit a truck</u>.

3. Preposition (SW, structure of modification marker included before object.)

Joe was hit <u>by</u> a truck.

Thus: SW N^1 V N^2

N^2 V SW N^1

N^1 V SW N^2

N^1 SW V SW N^2

N^1 SW V SW SW N^2

STRUCTURES

This section introduces the four syntactic structures, predication, complementation, modification, and coordination.

A. Structures of Predication consist of two parts or constituents, the subject and the predicate.

1. The subject includes the noun and all of its elements of modification.

2. The predicate includes the verb and all of its elements of modification and complementation.

E.g.:

The fire burns is a structure of predication.

The fire is the subject.

burns is the predicate

The fire that I started in the furnace last fall burned for five months and kept us warm all winter is also a structure of preposition.

3. Structures of predication also include nouns in the objective form and verbs in the infinitive or participial forms.

I wanted the fire to burn includes

a. structure of pred. I/wanted the fire to burn.

b. structure of pred. fire/to burn

I watched the fire burn includes

a. structure of pred. I/watched the fire burn

b. structure of pred. the fire/burn

I watched the fire burning up the coal

a. structure of pred.
I/watched the fire burning up the coal

b. structure of pred.
burning up/the coal

Sample Lecture-Discussion Continued

Another structure of predication is evident in sentences exhibiting the results of a transformation.

E.g.:

Most people regard him intelligent

him/ intelligent is a structure of predication transformed from

He is intelligent

similarly

All the poeple elected him chairman

him/ chairman

B. Structures of Complementation consist of two parts or constituents, the verb and its complement.

Examples of complements:

Direct object: this is the preposition filled by the noun previously identified as N^2 and can be substituted or expanded by several structures:

He sings the songs	sings/ the songs verb/ noun as object
He sings it	verb/ noun substitute (pronoun) as object
He like to sing	verb/ verb (infinitive) as object
He likes singing	verb/ verb (participle) as object i.e., gerund
He sings the songs that swing	verb/ structure of modification
He sings to make money	verb/ structure of modification
He sings what you ask for	verb/ structure of modification

Indirect ocject: the presence of an indirect object (see transformations above) indicates two objects (direct and indirect) in a structure of complementation.

He threw him a curve

verb/ pronoun (ind.) curve (d)

He bought Mary a book

verb/N (indirect) N (direct)

Subjective Complement: these are "subject completers"

The bookseller is a thief

V/N as complement

The bookseller is dishonest

V/A as complement

His art is cheating

V/V (gerund) as complement

His mind is twisted

V/V (past part.) as complement

He seems out of his mind

V/SW N N (prep. phrase) as complement

Objective complement: Similar to the indirect object in that it includes two objects; the objective complement differs in that it is an "object completer". The transformation which generates this structure is listed above. Like those other structures of complementation given above, the objective complement is formed with several different formal and function elements.

C. Structures of modification consist of two elements or constituents: a head and a modifier. Any one of the four parts of speech can serve as the head or as the modifier:

Noun-headed structures of modification with

1. nouns as modifiers

M	H	M	H
Sunday/	morning	baseball /	team
mens/	room	news /	medium

Sample Lecture-Discussion
Continued

2. Verbs as modifiers

M	H
(The) dripping	/ faucet
(The) approved	/ plumber

3. Adjectives as modifiers

M		H
bigger	/	bundle
sloppy	/	style
smallest	/	error

4. Adverbs as modifiers

	H	M	
(The)	work	downstairs	(is miserable)
(The)	trip	home	(is long)

Adjective-headed structures of modification with

1. Nouns as modifiers

M	H
treetop	tall
pencil	thin
year	older

2. Adverbs as modifiers

M	H
completely	correct
strictly	kosher

3. Verbs as modifiers

M	H
biting	cold

4. Adjective as modifiers

M	H
dark	blue

Sample Lecture-Discussion
Continued

M	H
crispy	fresh
squeaky	clean

Verb-headed structures of modification with

1. Adverbs as modifiers

M	H
frequently	drinks

M	H
finished	magnificently

2. Verbs as modifiers

M	H
came	singing
went	jumping (instead of going walking)

Adverb-headed structures of modification

1. Nouns as modifiers

M	H
week	early

2. Adverbs as modifiers

M	H
almost	home

Because it usually fills a position native to either the adjective or adverb, it is best to regard the prepositional phrase as a structure of modification:

adverb He came home N V Av

He came around the corner

adjective The dog in the manger

An out-of-the-park homerun

noun By the riverside is muddy

D. Structures of Coordination include parts or constituents (two or more) that are syntactically substitutable (except when relating cause-effect or chronology) are joined by a coordinating conjunction, and, or, but, either...or, both... and, not (only)... but (also). They join:

Nouns: fish and chips, neither fish nor fowl

Adjectives: fat but friendly, good or bad

Adverbs: quickly and easily

Verbs: either laughing or crying, bend and stretch

Structure of predication: He worked and he played

Structure of complementation: He caught a fish and a cold.

Structure of modification: A black and blue bruise.

Sample Summary Lecture

NOTE: The summary lecture suggested here is very brief. Since a final unit test might be given, you may wish to expand this lecture to serve as review.

What we have been attempting in this unit has been limited, essentially, to an outline--a relatively brief view of the grammatical elements of English sentences. An obvious point that nevertheless should be stressed is that we have not been through a comprehensive study of English Grammar. Our approach here has been limited to some rather general matters, and it's obvious that it would take considerably more time to cover any one of these topics in greater detail.

Stated in fairly simple terms, the analysis of grammatical elements we have tried here moves from simpler elements to more complex. We started with the analysis of words and their elements, morphemes. When we discussed bound and free morphemes, we were analyzing the meaningful parts of words and the ways in which these are combined in word formation.

Sample Lecture Contined

Next we moved to the role of words in longer utterances, discussing the parts of speech in phrases and sentences. As I'm sure you already know, many textbooks that purport to be grammar books list more than four parts of speech. In this unit, we have shortened the list of the parts of speech to nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These certainly don't constitute the only approach; other grammarians use other systems and other terms. For our purposes, these four will suffice.

Moving then to a higher level of complexity, we discussed five basic sentence patterns, with particular emphasis on the various patterns of the parts of speech and their interrelationships. When we discussed these patterns, it became obvious that the five simple patterns could not be used to describe all the sentences that might beused in the English language. We then turned to the transformation of these basic patterns into other types of sentences: questions, negations, complex sentences, sentences with indirect objects, sentences with predicate objects, and sentences in the passive voice.

Finally, in the section we just finished, we discussed four basic syntactic patterns. This section concluded the progression from phonology to morphology to syntax. Here we talked about predication, complementation, modification, and coordination.

Sample Summary Continued

Next year you will be studying a unit in which the kinds of analysis used in this unit will be applied to a corpus, or body of language use. In that unit, you will be expected to analyze the language on the levels we have been discussing here.

Key to Worksheet # 2

Part One

Defined by Vocabulary

in-
a-
-tion
pre-
fore-
-ous
-ish
-like

Defined by Structure

-ing
of
-er
-est

Part Two

1.	2.	3.	4.
weak	sailors	fallen	hopefully
relaxed	lawyers	gained	somehow
self-indulgent	employees	quit	here
silly	arguments	prevailed	aloud
alive	conveniences	excited	student-wise
good	consistencies	won	downstairs
bad	hostilities	lost	under
uncommon	oldsters	walked	eagerly
green	librarians	cost	
remarkable	gangsters	danced	
physical	carpenters	slain	
hopeful		bitten	
hopeless		hung	
popular		hanged	
legendary		stood	
comic		found	
foolish		fought	
marvelous		flown	
impulsive		struck	
woolen		written	
ragged		bitten	
exciting		lain	
friendly		laid	
		eaten	
		read	
		spoken	
		seen	
		held	